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PLANNING SCHOOLS FOR TOMORROW

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# SOME CONSIDERATIONS IN EDUCATIONAL PLANNING FOR URBAN COMMUNITIES

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U. S. OFFICE OF EDUCATION . . . John W. Studebaker, Commissioner

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# SOME CONSIDERATIONS IN EDUCATIONAL PLANNING FOR URBAN COMMUNITIES

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# FOREWORD

"PLANNING SCHOOLS FOR TOMORROW" has long been a major responsibility of school officials. Population surveys, occupational and social situation studies, curriculum committees, and other planning agencies or activities have long been integral components of progressive school organizations. Now the times in which we live, especially those to which we look forward, add dramatic significance as well as new and unforeseen difficulties to educational planning. What the future may hold in store for our world, how our youth, rapidly approaching maturity, may best play their part in protecting and preserving those ideals for which even now many of them are willing to fight and die if need be—these are the concern of education, the responsibilities of the schools of tomorrow for which we are planning today.

For more than a year now the U. S. Office of Education has had a Committee on Planning for Education. Its members have worked with Government and other groups and individuals interested in social planning. This pamphlet is the second of a series prepared in the Office on "Schools for Tomorrow," the original draft of which was prepared at the request of the Urban Section of the National Resources Planning Board. Increasing interest in educational planning and requests for help in doing it led to its publication in its present form. Since it is designed for wide use under varied conditions, the leaflet aims rather to present considerations, criteria, or methods of reaching them rather than to prescribe definite procedures. It is hoped that it will encourage planning, as well as be a guide to some aspects of planning schools which are suited to the needs of today and tomorrow.

BESS GOODYKOONTZ,
*Assistant U. S. Commissioner of Education.*

# SOME CONSIDERATIONS IN EDUCATIONAL PLANNING FOR URBAN COMMUNITIES

## OBJECTIVES AND SCOPE

EDUCATION is the most nearly universal and the most significant of public services in the United States. Without it, our democracy cannot hope either to survive through the war or, what is of equal importance, play its part in shaping a world in which free men can live in security and hope.

Planning for education is not altogether new or untried in our country as the existence of our State school systems testifies—they offer convincing evidence of the fact that planned organization for financial support and equitable services became necessary early in the history of public education. The inadequacy of the extent and quality of educational planning was recognized even before our entrance into the world conflict. Now, however, in the light of our present experiences in preparing for and carrying on a world-wide war, the urgency of long-time planning in education becomes clearer. We are beginning to see how far we are from the realization of our accepted policy of universal public education, equitably provided from the standpoint of quality and accessibility, and how serious are the results of our neglect. Both a successful termination of the war and the probability of securing and maintaining lasting peace depend to a great extent on our ability to extend and improve educational facilities throughout the Nation.

The purpose of this study is to emphasize the importance of planning for education in urban communities; to indicate some of the means of setting goals and choosing standards and other guides to efficient planning; and to offer some practical guidance in educational planning which planning boards, committees, individuals, and agencies may use in stimulating and guiding plans for progressive educational facilities in urban communities.

The general goals of public education in the United States are well established among laymen as among educators. As expressed by George B. Galloway, in "Planning for America" (18)*, they include:

1. To provide free education to all the people and to spread the opportunity for education evenly over the entire Nation.
2. To spread the burden of financing education fairly in terms of ability to pay.
3. To provide a curriculum that will develop the essential qualities of good democratic citizenship.
4. To provide a curriculum that will develop the special skills and aptitudes needed in our modern science-using culture.
5. To provide a curriculum that will nurture in each individual his own unique qualities and purposes.

In the United States today more than half the children live and attend schools in urban communities. The interpretation and application of these goals and their implementation into practical educational facilities are of major importance to their and our future and to the preservation of democratic ideals here and elsewhere in the world when finally war is ended. It is eminently fitting, then, that planning for educational systems in urban communities, adequate to present and, so far as we can anticipate them, to future needs, be under way. Consideration of certain purposes, standards, and principles based on acceptable and authoritative theories of education and proved through successful experience, are of primary importance as an initial procedure in acceptable planning.

For the purposes of this bulletin, planning is considered from a Nation-wide point of view. It is essential, however, that planning for any educational unit or system within a larger system be in harmony with the organization for education prevailing in or contemplated for the larger area of which it is a part,[1] and that it concern itself with goals and standards for education as they are generally understood among school officials and in school communities over a country-wide area. Some of the ways in which such goals and standards are reached are discussed in the following paragraphs.

Education in the United States is a State rather than a Federal responsibility. National standards according to the usual interpretation of the word "standards," implying uniformity of practice, are not available; indeed, they are not formulated nor approved except as they relate to fundamental goals rather than detailed methods of attaining them. States differ widely from one another, socially, economically, and in other ways influencing education. So do communi-

*Numbers in parentheses refer to bibliographical references, pages 36–38.

[1] The larger area is, of course, subject to progressive planning.

ties within States, though usually to a lesser degree. It is fundamental in our philosophy that community situations and needs condition the educational facilities provided. It is not only a basic assumption that people wish to determine the kind of education their children shall have, but there is a corresponding conviction that democratic vitality in education depends on the exercise of such a function. Democratic school systems will, therefore, aim to reflect in the programs offered certain variations in community needs and situations while maintaining high standards in the quality of education provided.

We look, then, for diversity rather than uniformity in school programs and correspondingly in standards, if they are thought of as detailed goals or practices other than those predicated on broad principles of education. Flexibility, provision for adjusting and adapting materials and methods to local and to changing conditions and needs, are prized characteristics of progressive school programs. This is an important consideration at the present time when, as Counts expresses it (10), "a new world is being forged in the flames of battle and at the council tables of the Nations"—a world the makers of which the schools are now preparing for their task.

This absence of formal and uniform standards of national application does not imply any lack of available guidance in formulating and evaluating educational programs from the standpoint of basic scientific principles of education or accepted practices developed through successful experience. Acceptable standards for important details in the conduct of urban school systems are usually evolved from prevailing practices in cities and groups of cities widely known as maintaining progressive programs. Population is an important factor in selecting cities for purposes of comparison and evaluation, especially in such items as size of staffs, administrative and supervisory; per capita costs; pupil-teacher ratio; and secondary program offerings.

Planning for education in urban communities, then, involves (*a*) consideration of the total administrative organization, including usually State, intermediate, and local units; (*b*) selection of goals and standards, the latter, as indicated above, based on accepted educational principles and prevailing practices in progressive city school systems selected because of comparable situations, as explained more fully later in this report; (*c*) outlining a program appropriate to the goals and standards selected and consistent with the resources of the community concerned; and (*d*) providing for coordination among planning groups for the total area affected.

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# ADMINISTRATIVE ORGANIZATION IN THE UNITED STATES AND LOCAL PLANNING

Each State is the administrative unit responsible for schools within its boundaries. While the Federal Government subsidizes certain educational activities, vocational preparation, for example, it does not assume administrative control over the school program as a whole. Each State is an independent unit insofar as school standards and programs are concerned.

Within each State, generally through State legislation, provision is made for one or more types of local school administrative units, each with certain allocated functions and each with considerable freedom of action within its area of jurisdiction, usually known as a school district. In most States provision is made for at least two rather distinct types of administrative units subordinate to the State unit, i. e., intermediate and local, one type of the latter being the urban school district. Educational responsibilities are distributed, through laws and regulations, among these three, or in some States, two different types of established units. The responsibilities delegated to each type of unit vary widely in number and importance among States and even within States. In general, it is true that the more populous and wealthier local school districts, that is, generally speaking, urban districts, have more freedom in exercising educational prerogatives than small local districts.

In progressive States there is usually maintained a well-staffed State department of education in charge of a chief State school officer known as the State superintendent or commissioner of education, or by similar title. The State department of education assumes responsibility for a good deal of educational leadership and for the establishment and maintenance of minimum programs or standards of education for all districts within its boundaries, always, however, leaving the local districts free to achieve objectives and programs above State standards according to their ability as manifested in local leadership and financial resources.

The State unit, usually through its State department, influences and serves local units in a variety of ways. Contributions to the financial support of local districts from State funds, concerned with which the departments usually exercise important functions, vary among States from a low percentage of total costs to a percentage approximating the total. Approximately half of the States contribute 35 to 50 percent of the total cost of maintaining schools within their borders, a percentage not necessarily specifically applicable to

any one system, urban or rural. States usually provide also through their State departments of education, research services, instructional supervision and inspection, the latter usually for the enforcement of minimum standards; they establish and enforce standards for teachers' qualifications through State certification, and determine to a considerable extent the content and method of presentation of elementary and secondary school curricula. All assistance available from larger units should be considered in planning. In some States professional services offered by the State department or State institutions may eliminate the necessity of urban districts, especially small ones, providing certain services; or at least reduce the degree to which they are necessary. Teacher education and certain types of supervision are examples.

In most States the functions of intermediate units are not concerned so much with urban as with rural systems. This is particularly true in regard to large cities. In a few States intermediate and urban school systems are coterminous. In many States the intermediate unit contributes substantially to school support.

While it is always necessary that local planning be coordinated with that of the larger area of which it is a part, particularly with State-wide educational planning carried on by State departments of education or State planning boards, it is especially necessary under certain conditions or in certain States. For example, there are several States in which surveys have been made for purposes of redistricting school administrative units looking toward more adequate support and increased educational efficiency. In these States it is essential to the success of the larger plan that it be not disrupted and that all local plans be within the pattern, regional or State, already established. Indeed, it is usually expected by those formulating regional or State plans that the wealthier areas, and urban areas are usually above average for the State in financial and other resources, will contribute to the less favored ones and thereby toward equalization of educational opportunities. Usually urban areas can contribute in ways other than financial support by making certain types of educational services accessible to the larger area and by demonstrating progressive educational practices, to name but a few examples. Unless these and other possible contributions are considered in planning and their purposes understood, an urban area might plan to withdraw from a taxing unit to the success of which its contribution is necessary.

The trend in planning for public services in large cities is to consider the total metropolitan area, sometimes designated as the greater city, as the planning unit, generally a commendable and efficient procedure. On the periphery of most cities there are organized school districts, many of which, possibly all of which, would be better served

educationally if included in the city system. On the other hand, more extensive planning projects, possibly a State-wide project, may contemplate their inclusion in another district or in other districts. Unless such lack of harmony is settled in good time, the peripheral districts may be omitted from both plans. The basis of settlement should be, of course, solely the educational welfare of the children concerned.

## PREVAILING PRACTICES IN THE ADMINISTRATION OF URBAN SCHOOL SYSTEMS

Prevailing practices in administrative organization in urban school systems can be more definitely determined than those followed in other less tangible phases of educational programs. Those indicated herein have been tried out over a period of years and conform to accepted principles of education. There is practically unanimous agreement as to their efficacy among school administrators and authorities in school administration. However, there is disagreement between the points of view held by educators and political scientists with respect to the relations of the governmental organization in control of the schools and of the municipal government of the community in which the schools function. Many political scientists advocate municipal control of school systems or at least closer coordination of schools and municipal governments (26).

Those who believe that boards of education should be fiscally dependent base their belief on the ground that it is inadvisable to divide fiscal responsibilities between two bodies; that two different fiscal bodies in the same city may involve it too deeply in expenditures. Those who believe that these boards should be fiscally independent believe that they are thereby more apt to be removed from municipal politics, and freer to carry out the responsibilities for the conduct of the schools with which State legislatures have charged them.

City school systems, with very few exceptions, are under the control of boards of education. According to prevailing practice they are elected by popular vote on a nonpartisan ballot. Small boards, usually of five, seven, or nine members are generally advocated by authorities in school administration as more desirable than large ones, as are overlapping terms, usually 4 years or more in length. Board members usually serve without salary, with or without provision for reasonable per diem or actual expenses incurred in attending essential meetings. The trend is toward gradual elimination of more than a few standing committees of school boards.

When city boards of education are fiscally independent of other city officials, and there is considerable agreement among authorities on city school administration and city school superintendents that they should

be, they have power to levy taxes for school purposes and to prepare the school budget without consulting other municipal bodies or officials such as the city council or the mayor. Prevailing practice throughout the country is that boards of education are fiscally independent bodies. They are usually granted broad powers by State legislative action, are charged with responsibility for carrying out regulations of the State with respect to education in the area over which they preside, and are vested with reasonably complete authority in matters of detail concerned with the conduct of the system.

The superintendent of schools should be, and according to prevailing practice, is the chief executive officer of the school board. All other administrative and supervisory officials are responsible to the school board through the superintendent of schools.

In cities of over 30,000 in population certain important prevailing practices concerned with boards of education are as follows: Election by popular vote, 74 percent of cities indicated; representing city at large, 86 percent; elected on nonpartisan ballot, 81 percent; composed of 5 to 9 members, 85 percent; term length, 4 years or more, 64 percent; president elected by board, 92 percent; members serve without pay, 91 percent; and boards fiscally independent of city officials, 64 percent.

## PLANNING THE PROGRAM

Long-range planning for education usually contemplates the existence of local planning boards or committees working in conjunction with national and State planning authorities who are in a position to furnish technical advice and direction and, in addition, adequate arrangements for full coordination among plans and planners. This need for coordination applies to different groups planning for education in the community, to those planning other public services or agencies which the community has established or desires to establish. and to larger area (State, e. g.) planning.

It has been indicated that within very general limitations urban systems are independent administrative units; that they receive certain definite assistance from the State and possibly from an intermediate unit in which they are located; and that they have practically complete freedom to plan as progressive programs as their respective resources permit.

### SELECTING STANDARDS

It has also been indicated that in the absence of imposed or approved uniform standards above certain minima, criteria for evaluating educational practices are usually sought in a study and adaptation of those prevailing in progressive systems in which educational conditions are similar to those being evaluated. Systems chosen for the

purpose are apt to be those which have adequate facilities for research and experimentation on which to base educational procedures and practices and to subject them to the test of experience.

There is usually considerable similarity in school programs and practices among cities of a given size regardless of State boundaries. It is common practice for school officials to compare given practices or items, of expense, for example, in their systems with those of other systems similar in size and resources. Such comparisons may result in changes on the part of one or more of the cities concerned. The result partakes of the nature of voluntary standardization based on considered action. In time, prevailing practice becomes a reliable guide. Such items as per capita expenditure for a given purpose; qualifications and salary of teachers; quality, type, and amount of supervision; organization of staff; and teaching load, probably vary as much or more according to population than any other one factor.

Largely because of the reasons indicated, the U. S. Office of Education, which publishes a separate volume on city schools as a part of its biennial survey of education in the United States, classifies the statistical data presented according to population groups. This facilitates the use of the data for comparative purposes of the kind indicated. The groupings are, Group I—including cities of 100,000 and over in population; Group II—cities having a population of more than 30,000 and less than 100,000; Group III—cities having populations between 30,000 and 10,000; Group IV—cities of less than 10,000 and more than 2,500 (28).

It is not intended to imply that location, regional or State, is of no importance. An outstanding example of regional influence is found in the prevailing lower standards in certain items, school costs, e. g., in the South. Several of the southern States maintain substandard programs when compared with the North or West, cities included, largely because of financial reasons. Despite this, however, the statement made above is accurate as a generalization, and cities located in less favored regions still aspire to reach standards set by those more liberally supported. They can approach, if not reach, the same standards.

There are four or more regional accrediting associations which influence prevailing practices in secondary schools.[2] They prescribe standards with which planners may wish to familiarize themselves, according to the respective region in which located. Originally these

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[2] Among them are: Middle States Association of Colleges and Secondary Schools: Secretary, Karl G. Miller, University of Pennsylvania, Philadelphia, Pa. North Central Association of Colleges and Secondary Schools; Secretary, G. W. Rosenlof, University of Nebraska, Lincoln. Northwest Association of Secondary and Higher Schools; Secretary, Paul S. Filer, 505 Columbia Building, Spokane, Wash. Southern Association of Colleges and Secondary Schools: Secretary, Shelton Phelps, Winthrop College, Rock Hill, S. C. Western Association of Colleges and Secondary Schools; Secretary, Paul M. Pitman, San Jose State College, San Jose, Calif.

associations were concerned chiefly with setting up minimum requirements for accreditation, and with college-preparatory courses. Recently, however, the regional associations have revised their "standards" and set up a self-evaluation plan by which high schools can carry on a continuing evaluating program.

## THE INSTRUCTIONAL PROGRAM

Obviously the formulation, development, and implementation of an instructional program in line with progressive educational policies and practices and adapted to achieve the goals which the community wishes to establish for the education of its children is the major responsibility of a school system. Administrative provisions are means to this end.

The goals of the program should embody, as far as resources permit, the highest ideals of the community for the education of its children; following, as far as possible, Dewey's requisite, that what the most progressive parents want for their children, that the community wants for all its children. Reasonable conformity with accepted theory and progressive practices as proved through successful experience is an accepted criterion in setting up standards for a satisfactory program. Education goals and standards as well as fundamental principles and practices involved in their achievement, should be developed by lay and professional leadership to the end that complete understanding and participation in planning are attained by the community as a whole as well as by school officials and pupils.

Some basic considerations and some general principles to be established, if they are not already accepted policies of the community, should include:

1. Adequate provision for free public education affording equally efficient instructional facilities for all children of all sections of the area involved.
2. Establishment of complete educational facilities beginning in early childhood, probably with the nursery school, and extending through the early college years, and including all phases of adult education, as essential elements in the program of the public schools.
3. Provision for comprehensive surveys, (1) of the social and economic conditions, and (2) of the location, age, educational status, and other pertinent information of all educables, children, youth, and adults, as basic in the formulation and adaptation of the educational program and in provision of facilities for the area served.
4. Development of an instructional program which will embody progressive policies and practices in education and be

adapted to achieve the goals set up with adequate consideration of the total community situation and needs. It should provide for and anticipate the demands of war and after-war situations and needs as they affect preparation for living under the constantly changing local, national, and world conditions.

5. Provision for democratic procedure in the development of the program of the administrative and instructional staffs and of all essential activities of long-range planning.

Guides to the formulation of a fundamental program based on authoritative principles of education and acceptable practices proved through successful experience in progressive urban school systems are widely available. Among authoritative statements, the four objectives of education as identified by the Educational Policies Commission form an appropriate basis for consideration, elaboration, and adaptation to the specific purposes and needs of the local urban system, according to the findings of the two surveys previously indicated. These four purposes are: Self-realization, human relationships, economic efficiency, and civic responsibility. They are elaborated sufficiently to form a workable basis for planning in the accompanying chart.

*The purposes of education in American democracy**

| General areas | Self-realization | Human relationship | Economic efficiency | Civic responsibility |
|---|---|---|---|---|
| 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 |
| Specific objectives: | The inquiring mind. | Respect for humanity. | Work. | Social justice. |
| | Speech. | Friendships. | Occupational information. | Social activity. |
| | Reading. | Cooperation. | Occupational choice. | Social understanding. |
| | Writing. | Courtesy. | Occupational efficiency. | Critical judgment. |
| | Number. | Appreciation of the home. | Occupational adjustment. | Tolerance. |
| | Sight and hearing | Conservation of the home. | Occupational appreciation. | Conservation. |
| | Health knowledge. | Homemaking. | Personal economics. | Social applications of science. |
| | Health habits. | Democracy in the home. | Consumer judgment. | World citizenship. |
| | Public health. | | Efficiency in buying. | Law observance. |
| | Recreation. | | Consumer protection. | Economic literacy. |
| | Intellectual interests. | | | Political citizenship. |
| | Esthetic interests. | | | Devotion to democracy. |
| | Character. | | | |

*National Education Association and American Association of School Administrators, Seventeenth Yearbook. Schools in Small Communities. Washington, the Association, 1939. p. 106.

It is apparent that the objectives of education in peace are equally applicable in war. Many are emphasized by it; promoting health—mental and physical, preparing for useful work, sustaining morale, strengthening initiative, are examples. School officials and interested parents seek to conserve and protect basic programs devoted to such permanent purposes while actively seeking ways of adjustment to the needs of wartime situations as they occur.

No one can foresee with definiteness and certainty what should constitute programs best designed for post-war education. Obviously there should be no sudden break between those designed for war conditions and those designed for world reconstruction. We will not wait until after the war to prepare for the additional responsibilities necessary; understandings of national and international relationships, economics on a world-wide scale, a demand for language skills, are obvious examples. The need for complete understanding of the Four Freedoms and their implications and of the "nine rights and opportunities" as defined by the National Resources Planning Board, offers special incentives and guides to those planning educational programs.

Not the least of the school's responsibilities are those concerned with promoting attitudes toward and appreciations of the responsibilities every individual must share for shaping the future. Educational agencies, always concerned with the development of morale to meet conditions as they arise, recognize in the present situation new incentives and responsibilities. Among specific suggestions for building and sustaining morale recently offered by the Educational Policies Commission (2) of value in planning programs are, that the schools:

> . . . strengthen their work in safety, health, and physical education; reduce inequalities of educational opportunity; train in skills and habits of arduous and sustained work; develop citizens competent to determine economic issues; promote feelings of self-confidence in the young; help to develop plans for a future world of order and justice; emphasize ethical standards; extend recreational activities; develop sentiments of comradeship among all social and economic groups; strengthen feelings of responsibility for good government among all citizens; stress the efficiency of many of our local, State, and Federal Government agencies; give systematic and satisfying practice in democracy in school and classroom; make a judicious use in the schools of rituals, pageantry, music, and other demonstrations of loyalty; teach the truth about social and economic problems without avoiding important issues and without betraying cynicism or prejudice; teach the values of democracy with honesty and enthusiasm; extend educational services to out-of-school youth and adults; and abstain from high-pressure methods of "selling" morale to the American people.
>
> In this war situation, the Commission continues to believe that the basic method for the development of morale in the United States, the only method that gives promise of continuing effectiveness, the only

method that is worthy of a free people, is the method of education. The morale thus created will not only withstand the threat of the dictators today but it will also serve our country well in the long pull ahead.

## GROUPS TO BE CONSIDERED

Consideration of the goals and principles indicated as basic in outlining instructional programs leads directly to a consideration of the groups for whom educational facilities should be provided and for whose specific needs and abilities the program must be organized and adapted. These groups include young children, children of elementary school age, the adolescent group, those for whom college and adult education are to be provided, and special groups, that is, those who for any reason are not adequately served by the program for normal and average groups.

(*a*) *Young children.*—The need for supervised educational experiences for children of preschool age has not been widely recognized in urban communities. Kindergartens are available in nearly all progressive city systems, but nursery school facilities as part of the public-school system are as yet rarer than their importance as an educational factor in early childhood would justify. The nursery school and kindergarten are especially desirable in less favored neighborhoods and among underprivileged children, but even for children from above-average homes they are important to provide a good environment and supplement home influences, to provide experiences which develop ability to live with others, to provide opportunities for the assumption of responsibilities suitable to the age of the children involved, to maintain health and physical fitness, to develop emotional stability and to help children to enjoy and appreciate outdoor living.

There is general agreement among educational authorities that an adequate program for young children would provide both nursery schools and kindergartens for all children at public expense and as a part of the public-school system. The trend is in the direction of expansion of public-school services to include these important agencies in early childhood education and the possibilities of providing them should be considered by all educational planners.

(*b*) *The elementary school group.*—The elementary school group is usually the largest one within school systems. It covers 6 or 8, depending on the type of organization prevailing, of the important years of the child's life. It is still the terminal school for many children. The elementary school builds the educational foundation which, for better or worse, influences one's later life whether he continues his schooling or begins the important business of making a living at the close of the elementary grades.

Despite the importance of the elementary school years and the success with which elementary education has been made widely available throughout the country, the elementary school has not developed in quality to the extent its importance deserves. Data concerned with men rejected for military service because of lack of ability to read, write, and figure, and to meet personal living problems, emphasize the need for even more widely extended and higher quality school facilities, more adequate support, more highly qualified teachers, a broader curriculum, and more appropriate equipment for elementary schools.

One of the most important trends to be considered in long-term educational planning is the development in recent years toward preparing and maintaining high quality among elementary teachers and toward establishing administrative provisions which, while they are concerned with teachers, are really designed to maintain a high quality of instruction in the elementary school. Progressive systems aim to achieve these ends in different ways. Among others are (1) establishment of a single salary scale, that is, paying an equally high salary and requiring equally high qualifications for elementary as for secondary school teachers. (2) Maintaining inservice educational facilities designed to promote continuing professional growth while in service and promoting continuing improvement in classroom work. (3) Maintaining a democratic organization in which teachers participate in policies concerned with important matters which definitely affect their efficiency as classroom teachers and the welfare of the children in their charge, development of curriculum materials, for example. Definite planning for these and other provisions for insuring the growth of elementary teachers in service, will help to avoid many of the existing inefficiencies.

Planning should also include definite provisions which will enable the schools to cope adequately with certain deficiencies common among elementary school children such as those in physical and mental health, dietary and other remediable deficiencies which hamper the attendance and school progress of children of the elementary grades. Early and individual medical attention, if available through adequate staffs and equipment, will eliminate many of these deficiencies in the early childhood years.

There is an important trend in city school systems toward making special provision for frequent contacts between the homes and the school. Many behavior problems, especially minor ones, unnecessary absence from school, misunderstandings concerned with the goals of the school program, and the like, can be avoided if an adequate staff of visiting teachers is employed. These are teachers who have had some training and experience in social work as well as in teaching.

In many systems they are or assist school attendance officers, but primarily they act as liaison officers between the home and the school, working in cooperation with the classroom teachers in solving individual problems which, if neglected, often lead children to court or have other serious results.

Where adequate home care is not assured to children of elementary school age, full-day facilities at public expense should be provided. Especially are such facilities necessary for children from broken homes, children of working mothers, and other children not adequately fed and cared for before and after school hours. Noon lunches, breakfasts, between meal lunches, supervised work and play programs, and other provisions and activities before and after the regular school hours should be available to the extent necessary to meet the needs. School lunches serving appropriately selected food and providing at least one nourishing meal should be available to all children of elementary school age either at the parents' or public expense.

(*c*) *The adolescent group.*—Secondary educational facilities for all children of high-school age definitely suited to their needs are accepted as essential in all urban school systems. Throughout the country the secondary school has had an unprecedented growth in recent years. This accounts in part for the fact that its program is not adequately supported nor are its goals clearly defined. The traditional curriculum designed to meet the needs of the small percentage of youth who entered high school to prepare for college in the early days of its history is no longer appropriate now that schools enroll more than 75 percent of the population of high-school age. This enrollment is increasing and will increase until it approximates the percentage now attained among children of elementary school age.

It is important, therefore, that the high-school program should be planned with a view to the needs of 90 to 100 percent of the high-school population. Considerable progress has been made in reorganizing high-school programs on the basis of the objective indicated but not enough had been accomplished to meet the situation fully even before war conditions presented new needs. Long-term planning involves additional and substantial revisions of the program. In the matter of citizenship training alone, a responsibility preeminently fitted to the high-school years, vast new demands are becoming apparent. Citizenship is no longer confined to one's community, State, and nation, but is rapidly becoming international in scope. Preparation for future citizenship will be designed to contribute understandings and attitudes which both war and post-war conditions demand. World economics, international relationships, unity within the nation, ability to think straight in situations never before encountered by any people, acceptance of responsibilities, international as well as national, ability to adjust one's thinking and acting to each day's

world, are all considerations in preparation for democratic citizenship for which planning must begin now. We cannot wait until after the war to prepare for after-war responsibilities. Other obviously desirable additions to the traditional program are concerned with home and family living, health, social and economic geography, opportunities for productive work, definite practical experiences in community living, recreation, leisure-time activities.

Especially should the high-school plan to utilize community resources to the fullest extent possible and creative activities through the arts should constitute an important part of education. Camp facilities should be available to all urban youth above and within the upper elementary grades.

Vocational preparation is now well established in urban high-school curricula. Much of it is federally subsidized and, at the present time, practically all federally subsidized work in the industries is devoted to preparation for war industries. As would be expected, the war has definitely affected trends in vocational objectives and consequently in the types of training offered. Continuing adjustments during and after the war to changing conditions in the industrial situation, national and international, are inevitable.

The demand for training in agriculture as a vocation in urban high schools is relatively not large at present and continuing study will be necessary to maintain the proper balance between supply and demand in the future. Technological advances will probably continue and the numerical demand for farmers and trained agriculturists may not increase. The need in the agricultural field in city school systems is, therefore, for wider understanding of the problems of agriculture and the importance of certain phases of agriculture, such as conservation, which are of national interest. Such courses, more or less general or cultural in character, will doubtless supersede to some extent in urban communities training for agriculture as a vocation.

The trend in homemaking education is toward expansion into such practical fields as home management, nutrition, personal living and consumer problems, orientation in urban living. Many of these and other similar opportunities for practical training for everyday problems are extended to boys as well as girls.

In the vocational field as a whole there is a trend toward concentration according to local opportunities on specific types of training eliminating the necessity of one school or system attempting a too highly varied program except, of course, in the larger metropolitan areas where such programs are justified, due to the concentration of taxable wealth and population.

Following vocational preparation, the establishment of facilities for providing placement and occupational adjustment services is gaining

favor in progressive urban school systems. Undoubtedly the schools of the future will not alone guide young people into the kind of training for which they are fitted by ability and aptitude, but will see that they are placed in suitable occupations and supervised in their work until successful adjustment is completed. There is a definite trend, too, toward providing during the high-school period opportunities for work experience including individual and community work. The educational value of work, some that is paid for and some that is not, is more and more recognized and is, therefore, being provided for increasingly in progressive school systems.

The choice between establishing vocational preparation in vocational departments of regular high schools and establishing separate vocational schools will probably continue to be made on the basis of the local situation within the urban area. On the whole, educational planning looks toward enriched opportunities in the vocational as in other fields, governed, of course, by financial resources and practical possibilities for occupational placement.

(*d*) *Expanding the secondary program.*—Obviously not all youth fit into any one type of high-school program. However, it is within the possibilities to provide, through different types of departments and courses, for all youth in any community. Not all of those who complete high school should seek college education, but many of those who do not would profit by an additional 2 years beyond high school. To meet the needs of these adolescents, urban communities, especially those of large population, are expanding secondary education to include 2 years of junior college work, in which both general education and vocational preparation appropriate to the individual and community needs are available. Since these additional opportunities are to become an integral part of the established secondary school program, much of the necessary equipment, buildings, libraries, recreational facilities, for example, can be made available at relatively little additional expense. From the standpoint of buildings, shops, equipment, even instructors in some of the vocational fields, many communities are now offering a varied program which can be extended to the junior college level without undue additional expense, even in this, usually, expensive phase of the curriculum.

Decisions concerning type and length of course beyond the regular 12-year program for which the local system should plan, should be made to harmonize with the State's program of higher education. In a number of large metropolitan areas full college work leading to the bachelor's degree, and in some cases to graduate degrees, is maintained. In small urban centers, especially those in the vicinity of State-supported higher institutions, offerings beyond junior college years are usually less necessary. In certain communities a movement is developing to set up some types of educational services, such

as vocational preparation, through organizing special districts, thus making available additional facilities in the secondary and junior college levels to larger areas. As such developments materialize they should be considered by local planning groups.

(*e*) *Adult education.*—Adult education as an organized unit in the public-school program has not yet been fully developed in many urban systems. Its importance in a democratic society, pledged to equality of educational opportunity, is obvious. In the past, adult educational facilities have been concerned, not wholly, but to a considerable extent with "Americanization" classes, with illiteracy programs, and with vocational training. Such opportunities have been usually offered in night schools, evening classes, and extension courses. Adult education, broadly conceived, covers infinitely more and should meet the varied types of educational needs of all adult persons within the community. The term "adults" is usually interpreted to mean those whose primary business is making a living at whatever age they may be. Lifelong learning is by no means new as an ideal, though facilities for realizing it at public expense are still inadequate.

According to Lyman Bryson (4) there are five functions of adult education, namely, remedial, occupational, relational, liberal, and political. Remedial education is designed to compensate for certain lacks in one's educational equipment. It may be on an elementary-school basis, or health instruction, or to satisfy special needs. Occupational education is designed for the individual who desires to change occupations, or advance in an occupation he has pursued before. Relational education aims to help one better to understand one's self and his relations with others; liberal refers to studies undertaken for their own sake, for personal advancement and personal satisfactions. Political education is designed to help men and women toward more intelligent citizenship.

The fundamental aims of education are, of course, the same at all ages. While there are differences in teaching techniques and content material which should be adapted to the particular group concerned, the school system as organized is equipped to offer full adult education facilities with relatively little cost in addition to that of the on-going program. The need for adult education in the five functional fields indicated is definitely increased because of the important problems raised by war conditions and the anticipated ones of the post-war period. Decisions concerned with the extension and type of offerings to be made available for adults in any urban area can well be made in the light of the social and economic surveys to which reference has previously been made. Certainly forward-looking educational planning should include a complete adult program in every urban system.

(*f*) *Special groups.*—Curriculum and organization adjustments for the education of all types of special groups, including the mentally and physically handicapped, the mentally gifted, bilingual, socially and economically handicapped, and children of minority groups, should be made as conditions warrant. Such provisions are usually made through special schools or classes or through individual instruction according to the school organization and community situation. In most States subsidization from State funds covering the excess cost of educating exceptional children over that of normal groups is provided. However, facilities should be provided even if the cost must be borne at local expense.

## ORGANIZATION ACCORDING TO GRADE LEVEL

The types of organization for the elementary and secondary grades reported to the U. S. Office of Education from city school systems include the following units with percentages of the total enrollment in each. Data are for 1938.

| *Type of organization* | | *Percent of total enrollment* |
|---|---|---|
| Nursery school and kindergarten | | 4.8 |
| Elementary: | | |
| Grades 1–6 | 23.4 | |
| Grades 1–8 | 34.3 | |
| Total | | 57.7 |
| Secondary: | | |
| Junior high school | 12.4 | |
| Senior high school | 7.8 | |
| Junior-senior high school | 2.7 | |
| Regular 4-year high school | 13.4 | |
| Vocational and trade schools | 1.2 | |
| Total | | 37.5 |
| Total, all levels | | 100.0 |

Above the 12 grades usually maintained, there are 71 cities which report maintenance of colleges or normal schools; 157 which report part-time or continuation schools; 346, night and Americanization schools; and 115, summer schools.

The types of organization represented are those most prevalent in city systems. There are, of course, certain variations in the organizations maintained in the elementary grades which are not reported to the U. S. Office of Education. Even though these variations in organization are important from the instructional standpoint, they probably are not significant statistically.

Concerning high-school organization, however, it is important to note the recent movement toward trying out several kinds of reorganization. While the 8–4 plan of organization, that is, 8 years of elementary and 4 years of secondary school work, formerly prevailed in urban school systems, a number of types of organization are now followed in the secondary school field. Schools having these newer forms of organization are generally referred to as "reorganized" high schools. The movement for reorganization rose largely because of a general feeling that we had not adequately taken care of the early adolescent boy and girl in the elementary school with its then too narrow curriculum. It was hoped that "reorganization" would facilitate certain desirable changes in the school program. The so-called 6–6 reorganized secondary school, contemplating 6 years of elementary and 6 years of secondary school work, is one example. There are also reorganized high schools on the 6–3–3 plan, the 6–2–2 plan, among others. Most of the larger cities, especially those in Population Groups I and II, have experimented or are experimenting with some type of reorganization. There are no data available to indicate what percentage of the cities in these groups have changed to reorganized types wholly. However, recent data compiled in the U. S. Office of Education indicate that many cities maintain both reorganized and regular 4-year high schools in the respective systems. The following data seem to bear out that conclusion.

Table 1.—*Secondary organization in city school systems, 1937–38*

| City group, by population | Systems having reorganized schools | | Systems having both 4-year regular and reorganized schools | |
|---|---|---|---|---|
| | Number | Percent of total cities | Number | Percent of total cities |
| 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 |
| I—Population 100,000 or more (90 cities) | 71 | 78.9 | 65 | 72.2 |
| II—Population 30,000 to 99,999 (212 cities) | 157 | 74.1 | 89 | 41.9 |
| III—Population 10,000 to 29,999 (643 cities) | 336 | 52.3 | 301 | 46.8 |

# THE STAFF: ORGANIZATION AND SERVICES

## ORGANIZATION AND SELECTION

An effective administrative organization for the internal management of the school system should be planned for with the population, the resources of the community, and especially, the educational program adopted, in mind. In the larger cities, such as fall in Groups I and II, the administrative staff would probably include at least the following: A superintendent; two or more assistant superintendents; a

business manager in charge of business, supplies, custodial staff, etc.; directors of divisions or departments; supervisors, general and special-subject; additional staff, dependent on the needs of the program.[3]

In the smaller cities the superintendent, one or more supervisors, and school principals may assume responsibility for the administration and supervision of the systems. For certain services in small cities part-time rather than full-time service, by a part-time resident physician, e. g., may be adequate. In a few of the small cities the superintendent or a registered nurse directs the health program (11).

Regardless of the size of the city the administrative and supervisory staffs employed should be selected because of professional preparation and successful experience, usually not wholly from within the system, other things being equal, of course. It is coming to be rather general practice, especially in large cities, to draw from the country at large in filling all types of professional positions in order to insure as high a quality of staff as careful selection and resources permit. Continuing adaptations of educational programs to constantly changing situations will become increasingly necessary if children and youth are to be prepared for the years ahead. Personnel, especially administrative and supervisory personnel, of exceptional quality in professional preparation and in personality will be required if success is to be attained. Its selection is a grave responsibility to which school boards, superintendents, and others concerned should devote serious consideration.

## SOME IMPORTANT SERVICES

A number of different services usually set up within the administrative staff organization are provided in progressive city school systems for the development and maintenance of an adequate educational program. The number and types of services will vary among cities according to the population and needs of the community and according to the goals of the program. Among the services of special importance usually found in urban school systems, the following should receive consideration: Health and physical education, research and clinical services, placement in community life, library, supervision of instruction. Guidance, where it is not incorporated into the regular or special teaching, counseling or supervisory programs, may well be carried on through a specially organized service.

*Health and physical education.*—Health is an important objective of education and adequate provisions should be made for its preservation and promotion as well as for health instruction throughout the system. Services in health and physical education as an integral part of the school program are not as yet universally provided in

[3] For detailed suggestions concerning administrative organization, see, Critical Problems in School Administration (9).

urban systems nor adequately developed in many of those in which they are provided. However, progress toward both provision and development is notable, especially since 1900.

Acceptable provision for such services would include the following program areas, each developed to meet the community's needs: (*a*) Health services which include such essential provisions as periodic physical examinations; discovery of physical defects and their recommendation to family attention; immunization, dental, nursing, and nutrition services. (*b*) A health instruction program which provides definite instruction about health, its development and preservation, and how to protect the health of others; the cultivation of sound health habits and attitudes effective to the extent that they are carried over from school into daily life; essential facts about nutrition and other desirable aspects of a stimulating program in this area. (*c*) Maintenance of a healthful environment. This concerns not alone sanitary and hygienic conditions in the buildings and on the school grounds, but involves considerations of the health of teachers, the control of communicable diseases, elimination of causes of accidents, the use of teaching methods which are effective without causing worry or fear. Involved also are provisions for desirable mental health of both teachers and children for which the schools must assume responsibility.

These three services should be administered by the school system under the control of the board of education (3, 9, 27, 30). While there are some cities in which the city health department administers the "health services" as referred to above, the practice is not general nor widely approved by school administrators. In 71 percent of cities reporting on this item to the U. S. Office of Education for 1938–40 (11), the health service is administered by the school board; in 23 percent, by the health department; in 6 percent, jointly by the two agencies. Prevailing and approved [4] practice in this respect has its basis in good principles of organization and the need of every school for an integrated program. The school's responsibility is to provide a well-organized and well-balanced education program. The school board elected for the purpose is answerable to the public for the efficient realization of this responsibility. It should be independent in exercising its functions of other local government agencies organized to effect other and different purposes. Division of authority and responsibility between related services is apt to result in unnecessary duplication and inefficiency.

Physical education and recreation are usually organized as an integral part of the instructional program, though occasionally as a separate section or division. In whichever way organized they should be included in the school program and formulated to contribute to physical, mental, emotional, and social health. Among the objectives

[4] By authorities in school administration.

are: Development of the body, of serviceable skills for recreational purposes, of mental and emotional poise and control. An acceptable standard in teaching load for physical education teachers in high schools is 1 teacher for each 250 pupils. In the elementary schools it is the usual practice to depend on the regular classroom teacher under the supervision of a special supervisor for this work.

Data concerning the cost of a complete health program as outlined above are not available from a sufficient number of cities to offer reliable guides to planning. Instructional service is, of course, carried on by regular and special teachers generally with a special supervisor to direct the program. Costs are, therefore, considered as part of the regular instruction budget rather than as separate items.

Similarly, maintenance of a healthful environment involves expenditures not usually segregated from other maintenance costs. Available cost data are, therefore, confined to health service staffs. It may be of interest, however, to mention that the White House Conference Report states that an expenditure of 10 percent of the educational budget for a complete health program would not be excessive.

Examples of health service staffs reasonably representative of practice in the United States are: For a city with 4,600 pupils enrolled, a director of school health service, 2 full-time dental hygienists, and 2 full-time nurses. For a large city with an enrollment of 294,000, a director, medical staff of 2 special assistants, 10 medical supervisors, 93 school physicians, 1 nurse supervisor, 93 nurses, 12 secretarial assistants, 1 chief physiotherapy technician, and 1 laboratory technician (11).

*Research services.*—Research services are maintained in nearly all progressive city school systems. Especially in the larger cities professional staffs are provided maintaining a continuing research and experimental program concerned with educational problems of the systems—administrative, instructional, and evaluative. The functions of research services differ among cities. Appraisal of practices, administrative and instructional; diagnostic and remedial functions; conducting surveys of conditions and achievements; collection and study of statistical data in other systems for comparative purposes, are among those commonly assigned to such bureaus or departments. A survey of the Philadelphia Bureau of Research (16) enumerates the following as among the important activities carried on over a 4-year period: Planning and administering testing programs; curriculum-making; guidance studies; classification and promotion of pupils; studies of class size and of pupil health problems; finance and building studies; studies of teacher personnel and teaching load.

According to prevailing practice in city systems, the research program is in charge of a director of research with a central staff, but engages the efforts of the supervisors, principals, and teaching staff.

Total costs, size and salaries of the central staff differ among cities. A study of the costs of research bureaus in 10 cities made in 1936 and reported in the Philadelphia survey shows a range in annual per pupil costs (A. D. A.) of $0.95 to $0.296 (16).

Recent data concerned with the number of cities in which research bureaus operate are not available. In 1930, 67 cities of less than 100,000 population, and 52 cities of 100,000 population and over, 10 of which were more than 500,000 in population, reported such bureaus to the U. S. Office of Education (14). Bureaus in many of the cities reporting at that time, nearly 50 percent, had been established within the preceding 6 years, i. e., 1925 to 1930, inclusive. Undoubtedly a much larger number of cities maintain research bureaus at the present time than in 1930, though the exact number is not available.

*Clinical services.*—A definite and rapidly growing trend in urban systems is that of providing clinical services for the study of children's individual needs and of essential adjustment measures. These services are variously known as child-guidance clinics, psychiatric clinics, behavior or mental-health clinics, and by other names. The number of communities served by psychiatric child-guidance clinics had reached approximately 700, according to reports received in 1938 (5). These are State-wide, county-wide, and city-wide in administration and in extension of services.

Activities of the "child-guidance clinic" as described by the Educational Policies Commission (27) are:

> The child-guidance clinic brings together the teacher, parent, attendance worker, psychologist, and physician for consultation regarding the child with problems. The services of a psychiatrist may also be needed on occasion. The clinic studies the child from all angles seeking to discover the roots of his difficulties whether they lie in abnormality, poor health, mental maladjustment, emotional conflicts, bad home or school conditions, unwholesome friendships, or unfavorable community environment. When the causes of trouble are identified the treatment is prescribed and the case followed up through the appropriate agencies of correction.

City school systems provide clinical services of the type indicated in varied ways. In small city systems particularly, the available services from other agencies—State, municipal, or private—influence the type and amount of service which the school system will need to provide. In some small systems a school psychologist, an attendance worker, a school counselor, or a visiting teacher employed within the system, may offer the only service available. In others, an outside cooperating agency is the sole source of such help. In cities of moderate size a clinical unit may be established in a division of guidance or of pupil personnel, in the psychological division or in the established health service. In the larger school systems a number of separate bureaus within the system coordinate their services in this field.

Whatever the type of organization used, there are certain well-defined standards with regard to desirable personnel which in general may be classified as physiological, mental and educational, emotional, and social or environmental. The school physician and the school psychologist often offer a point of departure in developing a clinical program. Where there are school social workers and psychiatric social workers, contacts with the home, studies of community resources, and environmental problems are often entrusted to them. They work with the classroom teacher in adapting the agreed-upon pupil-adjustment measures. The service of a psychiatrist is essential in a complete clinical organization though few school systems employ a full-time psychiatrist on the school system staff. Many school children have access to psychiatric services through private, community, county, or State agencies, not part of the school system—State universities are an example of State agencies equipped to furnish such service.

The costs of a child-guidance clinic offering appropriate services in cities of approximately 200,000 population are estimated as about $20,000 per year (5). This amount would include services of a full-time psychiatrist, a full-time psychologist, two or three full-time psychiatric social workers, and two or three clerks. In small systems in which the clinical service is but one phase of a larger program of pupil adjustment and in which members of the clinical staff perform other duties, it is difficult to arrive at cost standards. One school system of 450,000 population reports salaries for its department of child guidance as $25,820. In a city of 80,000 the salary budget is reported at $5,000. Several part-time specialists are employed in this system (5).

*Placement in community life.*—There is a growing conviction that the school's responsibility does not end with completion of the formal school courses, usually those offered on the secondary level, but should be extended to include all pupils until they are placed in suitable employment and adjusted to community living. Some school systems conduct placement agencies in connection with the regular school-guidance services. Guidance services, adapted to the needs of the pupils and the community, are more and more being integrated into regular school programs. Other schools or school systems cooperate with publicly supported or other employment agencies to the end that occupational and vocational courses are harmonized with employment needs, and that guidance, vocational and educational, fulfills its purpose, namely, that of successful adjustment within community life.

Successful coordination of the functions of high schools and placement agencies are found in a number of cities, Cincinnati, Ohio, and Providence, R. I., being outstanding examples. Where such coordi-

nation is not feasible or where there are no placement agencies interested in studying qualifications, aptitudes, and interests of high-school youth, the school system or the high schools are now establishing placement agencies. In Detroit, for example, the board of education conducts a placement service for youth leaving school. In Atlanta, Ga., a junior placement service supported by the Community Chest uses and prepares records on each person leaving school, drawn from the actual school records. There is every indication that war and post-war conditions will enhance the importance of and the need for placement services for high-school youth.

*Library services.*—School library service, adequate to the needs of all pupils enrolled for the purposes indicated below, should be planned for as an integral part of the educational program. The particular form of school library service may depend, in administration and extent, on the service already available through public library facilities and the relationships which have been or can be established between the public library and the school library services.

There are, of course, many communities in which public library service has been well developed over a long period of years and satisfactory cooperative relationships with the school system are well established. Reference books, text and supplementary materials for classroom use as well as leisure-time, recreational, and cultural materials are furnished adequate in amount and method of distribution to school needs. In such cities it may not be necessary to develop separate administrative control under which the school library service will function. There are other cities in which the school board administers both public and school library services and others in which maintenance of a separate school library under the direction of the school board is considered desirable. As in many other aspects of public service, efficient administration which provides full coordination of effort and services is important as well as the kind of administrative organization.

However, as previously indicated, the trend is toward coordination of public services under single administrative control and library service is more and more becoming recognized as a function of organized education. The type of administrative control is, therefore, one in which decision may be based on the local situation, provided that it insures adequate library service to the schools.

The American Library Association and certain associations of colleges and secondary schools approve the following tentative standards: Average minimum annual income for library service, $1 per capita for population served; for high schools with enrollments of 500 or less, an appropriation of $1 per student per year for books, periodicals, etc., exclusive of staff; for enrollments of more than 500, 75 cents per capita for the same items; for an enrollment of 100

or less, 500 well-selected books; for enrollments of 1,000 or more, 5,000 such books, daily and weekly newspapers, and 40 suitable periodicals.

Staff standards suggested are: For a school library that serves 100–200 students, a half-time librarian; one that serves 500–1,000, a full-time librarian; an additional trained librarian is recommended for every 1,000 or major fraction thereof students served.

*Supervision of instruction.*—Supervision which, in its modern sense, means the improvement of instruction in connection with both materials and methods, is perhaps the most widely accepted service, unless it be teaching, as a sine qua non in urban school systems. In the very small cities the superintendent's duties include the supervision of instruction. In the larger systems large staffs with supervisory functions are usually employed, including assistant superintendents; supervisors, general and special subject; directors, especially of instruction and curriculum; principals; and assistant principals. The number and kind of supervisory officials and the allocation of functions or areas among them is an administrative consideration and varies from city to city. The administrative organization, the established relationships, the allocation of functions among the total staff as well as other local situations, even location of buildings, may have an influence.

In some cities general supervision prevails in the elementary school; in others, special subject supervision. In the latter case the principals usually assume responsibility for the coordination of the program in their respective schools and supervisors visit classrooms infrequently. In one of the country's large cities with a population of over a million, there are 121 special subject supervisors for the elementary schools who work chiefly with principals to whom classroom supervision is largely entrusted (16). In a few large systems the city is divided into districts for instructional improvement, each under the direction of an assistant superintendent (or corresponding officer) and staff. In a medium-size city (23) supervision of instruction is entrusted to 1 of 3 assistant superintendents who supervise the academic subjects in grades 4–6; to a kindergarten-elementary supervisor who supervises kindergarten and grades 1–3, inclusive, and 6 special subject supervisors who work on both elementary and secondary levels, as follows: A supervisor of penmanship, 2 supervisors of music, a supervisor of art, a supervisor of industrial arts, and a supervisor of physical education.

In general, the number of supervisory officers bears some relationship to the number of teachers and children to be supervised. Some idea of practice in the United States concerning the number of supervisors according to teachers supervised is given in the following data reported to the U. S. Office of Education for 1937–38: Average number of teachers per supervisor in city systems, Group I, 108; Group II, 63; Group III, 65. The average number of teachers per principal (same groups)

23, 25, 23 (28). Further information concerning this item in certain selected cities is shown in table 3.

The relation of the cost of supervision to the total cost of instruction varies according to the following averages from 1.2 percent to 2 percent in the 3 groups for supervisors' salaries; and from 6.8 percent to 7.9 percent for salaries of principals.

*Other services.*—Other desirable services will be suggested by local needs. Undoubtedly war and post-war developments will necessitate others which may be established in connection with the central staff or in particular school buildings or areas, the all-day school services referred to elsewhere, for example.

## THE TEACHERS

Selection and placement of the teaching personnel are perhaps the most important of the functions of the administrative and supervisory staffs. Professional qualifications supplementing those set up through State laws and regulations are usually established in cities for the whole instructional staff, i. e., directors, assistant superintendents, supervisors, and teachers. For directors of instruction or of curriculum (titles differ) the Ph. D. or A. M. are commonly considered standard in educational qualifications; for supervisors, at least an A. M. in Education, and for teachers, at least a B. A. or B. S. or equivalent training in addition to teaching or other kind of educational experience. At present, 13 States require 4 years of college work as minimum for elementary or secondary teachers' certificates. In these States many city systems require additional preparation of teachers entering the system.

Not alone the amount but the kind of professional preparation is an important factor in considering educational qualifications. Applicants for teaching positions are usually required to have specialized preparation in the particular fields in which they are to teach. If kindergarten or elementary positions are under consideration, applicants with special preparation in the respective field are sought. On the secondary level applicants are expected to have majored in the subjects they expect to teach in addition to their preparation in education. Similarly in other specialized fields of teaching, definite preparation and experience are among the requirements.

As one would expect, salaries are a significant factor in securing teachers highly qualified in professional preparation and successful experience and with desirable personal qualities. Other things being equal, a high correlation may be expected between salaries and all-round qualifications.

There are, however, other considerations affecting the teaching staff which are important in planning; among them, maintaining an ap-

propriate pupil-teacher ratio, adoption of salary scales which provide for promotion on the basis of efficiency, experience, and similar considerations affecting the general morale of the staff. The trend is decidedly toward a single salary scale for elementary and secondary teachers and provision of adequate retirement arrangements in conformity with or in addition to State retirement provisions. Another important trend is that toward payment of salaries on the 12-month basis for all teachers regardless of whether or not summer schools, camps, work programs, and the like, are established as part of the school year.

There are differences of opinion in regard to the optimum pupil-teacher ratio to be adopted in urban communities when deciding on the number of teachers needed. Practice throughout the country varies slightly according to groups, the average in 1938, based on average daily attendance, for Group I being 29; Group II, 27; Group III, 28; and Group IV, 28. These averages can serve only as rough guides. For children enrolled in special classes for the mentally deficient, deaf, hard-of-hearing, etc., fewer children per class and per teacher are necessary for efficient instruction.

Teachers' salaries differ widely according to communities, size of cities, and school levels. The average salary for all types of teachers for 1941, according to groups, was as follows: I, $2,351; II, $1,756; III, $1,489; all groups combined, $2,039. These salaries should not be considered "standard," especially at the present time; conditions always fluctuating, are unusually so now and living costs, which should govern salaries, will continue to undergo significant changes.

Salaries of superintendents, supervisors, special class and subject teachers, vary widely among localities but should not be in too great variance with the salary scale set up for teachers.

## INSTRUCTIONAL COSTS

The largest item among classified expenditures of city school systems as commonly budgeted is that for administration and instruction or, if considered separately, for instruction. Both are largely staff costs. They are, of course, closely associated and interdependent. In planning revisions of school programs to meet future needs a study of the distribution of total expenditures among essential functions as followed in other similar communities should be helpful in providing some general guides to acceptable practices.

Data from the U. S. Office of Education's regular biennial survey of education in city school systems provide material for comparison among cities of varied sizes on important educational items and activities. For example, the following table shows the percentage of the current expense dollar spent for certain major school functions or

administrative essentials in cities, according to population groups It is noticeable that there is considerable similarity among the groups in several of the items shown, notably those concerned with the percentage costs of administration (3 to 5+) and of instruction (73 to 78). If one considers the percentage costs of these same items among individual cities, rather than the averages for the groups indicated, the variation is from 63 percent to 87 percent (data not included in the summary table).

It is apparent from a study of the table that there is considerable agreement among urban school systems, regardless of population, as to the place of instruction in the school program so far as cost is concerned. Similarly the percentage of current expenditures devoted to administration varies only slightly according to population groups, as indicated in table 2.

Table 2.—*Percent of the current expense dollar used for the various major accounts in the average city of each group, 1939–40*

| Major account | Percent of the current expense dollar used in— | | | | |
|---|---|---|---|---|---|
| | Group I (53 cities) | Group II (43 cities) | Group III (40 cities) | Group IV (40 cities) | All cities (estimated) |
| 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 | 6 |
| Administration | 3.0 | 3.3 | 4.0 | 5.6 | 3.6 |
| Instruction | 77.2 | 78.0 | 76.9 | 73.3 | 76.7 |
| Operation of physical plant | 9.0 | 10.9 | 12.0 | 12.1 | 10.3 |
| Maintenance of physical plant | 3.7 | 3.7 | 3.4 | 3.6 | 3.7 |
| Auxiliary school services | 2.3 | 1.9 | 2.4 | 3.9 | 2.5 |
| Fixed charges | 4.8 | 2.2 | 1.3 | 1.5 | 3.2 |

For those planning officials who may be particularly interested in comparative costs according to regions of the United States, another table follows. It is concerned with instructional staffs, per pupil costs, and other items. In this table, data from one city selected from each of the six sections indicated in the first column of the table are presented. The cities are not among the largest cities of the United States, that is, those over one million in population, but each is more than 100,000 in population. The cities are fairly representative of practices in cities of the respective regions in relation to the items included in the table, such as size of classes, length of term, average daily attendance, etc.

Table 3—*Data concerned with staff, per pupil costs, and other items in six selected cities, 1940*

| General location | Teacher-supervisor ratio | Teacher-pupil ratio (enrollment) | Elementary teacher-pupil ratio (A. D. A.) | High-school [1] teacher-pupil ratio (A. D. A.) | Kindergarten facilities | Length of school year in days | Percent A. D. A. is of enrollment | Average salary of principals | | Average salary of teachers | | Total current expenditure per pupil in A. D. A.[2] |
|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|
| | | | | | | | | Elementary | High school | Elementary | High school | |
| 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 | 6 | 7 | 8 | 9 | 10 | 11 | 12 | 13 |
| The South | 125 | 39 | 36 | 26 | No | 176 | 84 | $2,281 | $2,562 | $1,181 | $1,472 | $51.62 |
| Pacific Coast | 129 | 34 | 29 | 26 | Yes | 190 | 79 | 3,517 | 4,284 | 2,334 | 2,717 | 151.82 |
| Mountain States and Midwest | 108 | 38 | 36 | 27 | Yes | 179 | 82 | 3,549 | 3,594 | 2,476 | 2,608 | 116.57 |
| New England | 71 | 33 | 31 | 26 | Yes | 184 | 85 | 5,031 | 4,987 | 2,642 | 3,083 | 143.88 |
| East Central | 111 | 37 | 34 | 31 | Yes | 184 | 87 | 3,369 | 4,230 | 2,184 | 2,934 | 127.98 |
| Northwestern | 124 | 33 | 31 | 26 | Yes | 181 | 87 | 3,716 | 4,029 | 2,111 | 2,219 | 118.55 |

[1] Includes junior high schools.
[2] Full-time day school only.

Actual costs of instruction for the total school system are conditioned, among other things, by the extent of the program offered. For example, a school system which includes kindergarten and junior college among its offerings will cost more than one which does not, other things being equal, of course. Per pupil expenditures for instruction for cities over 10,000 in population indicate that the higher the level in the organization the greater the cost. Following are the data for 1938: Per pupil expenditures for instruction based on average daily attendance: Kindergarten, $53.75; elementary, $73.72; junior high school, $89.64; senior, junior-senior, and regular 4-year high school, $101.99; vocational and trade high school, $149.53. The averages are influenced by the fact that many cities still pay higher salaries and maintain lighter teaching loads measured by pupil-teacher ratios in the higher grades than in the lower grade levels.

## THE SCHOOL PLANT[5]

### COORDINATION OF SERVICES

A serious limitation of planning now under way is that it may fail to provide for much needed coordination and unification of related services; recreation, health, education, and social welfare, for example. Integration of programs along these lines now desirable will doubtless be necessary in the post-war world. A demand for the extension of

[5] For basic data presented on the school plant, see references 13 and 28.

public social services seems inevitable. The present situation resulting in duplication of services in some areas and complete neglect of them in others due to overlapping functions among different agencies will not be tolerated in the future. Moreover, we will be living in a debt-ridden world. Considerations of economy alone will necessitate unification among social programs. Centralization of sites, buildings, and staffs of the services mentioned and, in addition, library and other publicly supported services will doubtless be essential to their adequate support and successful operation in future provisions. Plans now under way, or future ones, directed toward each of these services should be coordinated before final acceptance by the interested communities.

Some progress has already been made by forward-looking citizens and leaders of public service agencies toward the coordination of staffs and services. In some progressive communities two or more of the services, education, recreation, health, library, social welfare, have been centralized in one administrative agency often occupying a single site or building, generally in what is commonly thought of as a community school. American schools, inadequate as many of them are as yet to achieve their potential goals, are the most nearly universally available and accessible of all public services. In a high percentage of our cities the school plants are planned to be used for recreational purposes with indoor and outdoor play and recreational facilities. In some, playgrounds, auditoriums, recreation rooms, etc., are adapted to the use of adults as well as children and youth. Professionally prepared recreation and dramatic teachers are widely employed in city school systems.

Similiarly, school health and physical education programs provide varied types of health services. As indicated elsewhere, staffs of physicians, nurses, physical education teachers, are at work in nearly all city school systems, even those not large enough to employ them on a full-time basis. Moreover, schools and school systems render important social services through attendance and school social workers; through guidance, placement, and clinical services; through cooperation with juvenile courts and other activities essential to the realization of their prescribed educational functions.

In accessibility and to some extent in provision of facilities and staff, then, the schools seem the logical centers in most urban communities in which to effect some appropriate coordination of health, recreation, library, and social welfare agencies, or of such of the services and activities of these agencies as they can appropriately and efficiently perform. Plans for new sites and buildings can be revised and school plants now in use expanded to provide for such extended services probably more economically than in any other way.

There is, of course, no real reason why schools should continue the present short-sighted policy of closing their doors except during the traditional class-room hours and the 9- or 9½-month term. The newer demands of adults for educational opportunities are already changing the situation. As additional demands materialize, changes will be accelerated and augmented to meet them.

## SOME STANDARDS BASED ON PROGRESSIVE PRACTICES FOR PLANNING

In planning sites and buildings for education an early step will be a consideration of State and local laws and regulations in conformity to which all plans must be made. Many States have school-building units or divisions in the State departments of education from which regulations concerning location, grounds, buildings, etc., are issued and from which expert advice is available. Such local considerations as climate, materials available, prevailing prices, and similar factors vary widely. State and municipal regulations will be necessary guides in matters of the kind indicated.

Distribution of population, transportation facilities, and certain strictly local or area considerations are such obvious factors in locating school sites and buildings that it is necessary only to call attention to their basic importance in planning the total educational program. Accessibility of school facilities to the pupils concerned is a primary criterion in selection of school sites.

Probably the most important consideration in planning sites, grounds, and buildings, especially buildings, is the school program to be carried on within them. The building should be adapted to the optimum development of the program adopted and to the special needs of the children and adults who go to school in it. So also should facilities for playgrounds, games, etc.; for example, if a kindergarten is included in the program adopted, a separate playground with appropriate equipment will be necessary. If upper-grade and high-school pupils and adults use the school, probably baseball grounds, volley ball and tennis courts would be planned. If a classroom or classrooms are to be used for crippled or hard-of-hearing children, the rooms and equipment should be planned to meet the needs of such children. In any case the initial step in planning the building will be to prepare a chart of the program showing the number and kind of rooms to be provided, the age, number of pupils to be accommodated, equipment needed, etc., and how the rooms should be designed to fit the purposes for which they will be used. For example, the platoon type of program requires a different arrangement of rooms, a different number, kind, and size of rooms, than a school building in which either an activity program or the more

traditional type of program is to be followed. The site and buildings to be used as a community center should be planned with all of the essential purposes of such a plant in mind.

For facilitating a modern school program, particularly an activity program, larger classrooms than those designed merely to seat the children are necessary. In addition, special activity rooms are usually planned when the entire school program is to be on an activity basis. Special rooms for music, art, etc., are common provisions in modern school buildings, though the program to be followed may contemplate the use of the regular classrooms for teaching these subjects.

If programs for the future are planned to meet the changing conditions we expect in curricular materials and educational activities, corresponding changes may be expected in building arrangements. The new curricula will require enrichment as previously indicated. More attention to physical and health needs, to play and recreation, to the arts and sciences—geography, for example, to the social studies and citizenship training, among others, are sure to be necessary. To plan buildings to anticipate new needs requires imagination, foresight, and experimentation—these are added reasons for careful planning of educational programs for the future.

They are also reasons why only very general standards can be presented here based as much on minimum requirements as on prevailing practices.

*Costs.*—In regard to costs, experience indicates that although there unquestionably is a positive correlation between the cost of a school plant and its educational adequacy, this correlation is not perfect and there is no reason to believe that it is even high. One school plant costing $400 per pupil may be so effectively planned and constructed that it will actually afford superior school facilities to an extravagant plant which costs twice as much per pupil. Cost alone, therefore, is not a satisfactory basis for determining national standards for school plants. The average plant investment per pupil in cities of the United States is $440. Several cities, however, have a school plant investment in excess of $1,000 per pupil. The average for all cities in certain States will exceed $600, while the average for all cities in other States is as low as $200.

The average annual cost of school plant operation in the American cities is approximately $10 per pupil, and the average annual cost for maintenance of the school plants in the American cities is approximately $4 per pupil. Many cities will and should spend far in excess of these amounts.

The total school plant cost in 2,902 cities in the United States in 1938 presented on a percentage basis was approximately as follows: 7 per-

cent for land; 2 percent for drives, walks, fences, and landscaping; 5 percent for architectural and engineering fees and supervision of construction; 1 percent for legal and administrative costs; 10 percent for equipment and furnishings; 75 percent for contract costs, including general, electrical, plumbing, heating, and mechanical.

*Plan and construction.*—All school buildings of more than one story should be of fire-resistive construction with noncombustible exterior and interior walls, floor slabs, and stairways. Either the ceiling over the top floor or the roof in multiple-story buildings should be fire-resistive. School buildings that are planned on a single floor may be of combustible construction and built of masonry and wood, brick veneer, or all frame. All school buildings should be provided with corridors, stairs, and exits conforming to the requirements of the National Fire Protection Association.

A minimum of 200 square feet of play area per pupil, exclusive of the area occupied by buildings, drives, walks, and landscaping, is essential; the floor area of a classroom should provide 20 square feet per pupil, exclusive of storage and other service facilities; while special laboratories such as household arts, science, fine arts and drawing, and commercial rooms, should have a minimum floor area of from 25 to 40 square feet of floor space per pupil depending upon the type of activity. Industrial arts shops should be planned with floor areas of from 30 to 50 square feet per pupil, exclusive of storage and other service space.

*General facilities.*—Every urban school plant will probably include a library which should seat approximately 10 percent to 20 percent of the pupils enrolled and provide from 20 to 25 square feet of floor space per library seat.

Lunchrooms should have a seating capacity of at least one-third the number of pupils eating at the school and should provide approximately 12 to 14 square feet of dining room floor space per seat.

The auditorium or assembly room should be planned to seat approximately half the enrollment. It requires approximately 7 square feet of seating space per person. The minimum stage depth should be 24 feet.

The gymnasium or playroom should have locker and shower facilities to permit each pupil to participate in the school's physical education program. An audiovisual room equipped with sound and motion-picture equipment is a desirable asset.

Large school buildings which house administrative and clerical staffs should be provided with office space of approximately 200 square feet per person on such staffs; with separate rest rooms for boys, girls, male teachers, and female teachers; and with a clinic equipped for physical and dental examination. The latter will require from 500

to 1,000 square feet in the average school. Appropriate adaptations of these standards can be made to meet small-building needs.

Separate toilet rooms for boys and girls should be provided on every classroom floor; toilet-room floors and wainscoting should be of impervious materials. Also necessary are: One washbasin for every 30 pupils, one drinking fountain for every 100 pupils, one water closet for every 25 girls, one water closet for every 40 boys, and one urinal for every 40 boys.

All instructional space should be provided with adequate natural light with a minimum of 1 square foot of glass area for every 5 square feet of floor space, as well as with artificial lighting, which will give an intensity of at least 10 foot-candles of properly diffused light on all working surfaces.

Storage facilities for general supplies, instructional supplies, janitorial supplies, and teachers' and children's books and materials are necessary for each building.

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